NORTH AMERICA			
Canada	25,652	24,882	−3.0
U.S.A.	229,949	234,193	1.8
EUROPE			
Eastern Europe			
Bulgaria	9,153	8,944	−2.3
Czechoslovakia	15,591	15,420	−1.1
German Democratic Republic	16,867	16,724	−0.8
Hungary	10,840	10,691	−1.4
Poland	36,887	36,556	−0.9
Romania	22,813	22,649	−0.7
Northern Europe			
Denmark	5,148	5,115	−0.6
Finland	4,931	4,850	−1.6
Iceland	238	236	−0.8
Ireland	3,421	3,534	3.3
Norway	4,117	4,131	0.3
Sweden	8,281	8,331	0.6
United Kingdom	55,733	56,006	0.5
Southern Europe			
Albania	2,921	2,846	−2.6
Greece	9,498	9,898	4.2
Italy	57,477	56,345	−2.0
Malta	352	363	3.1
Portugal	10,055	10,008	−0.5
Spain	38,366	38,234	−0.3
Yugoslavia	22,861	22,826	−0.2
Western Europe			
Austria	7,460	7,574	1.5
Belgium	9,852	9,865	0.1
France	53,970	54,604	1.2
Federal Republic of Germany	60,395	61,543	1.9
Luxembourg	357	366	2.5
Netherlands	14,278	14,374	0.7
Switzerland	6,482	6,463	−0.3
OCEANIA			
Australia	15,003	15,265	1.7
New Zealand	3,380	3,142	−7.0
Papua New Guinea	3,422	3,259	−4.8
Fiji	662	672	1.5
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	273,125	272,308	−0.3
ASIA			
East Asia			
China	1,033,699	1,059,802	2.5
Japan	118,865	119,205	0.3
Hong Kong	5,477	5,313	−3.0
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	19,185	19,185	0
Republic of Korea	40,445	41,366	2.3
Mongolia	1,812	1,809	−0.2
South Asia			
Burma	37,982	37,061	−2.4
Democratic Kampuchea	7,185	5,996	−16.5
Indonesia*	156,373	160,932	2.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	3,994	3,647	−8.7
Malaysia	15,119	14,995	−0.8
Philippines	53,226	53,162	−0.1
Singapore	2,485	2,501	0.6
Thailand	50,284	50,731	0.9
Viet Nam	57,449	57,036	−0.7
Middle South Asia			
Afghanistan	17,194	14,177	−17.5
Bangladesh	95,898	96,539	0.7

Bhutan	1,386	1,386	0
India	725,456	730,572	0.7
Iran	41,808	42,490	1.6
Nepal	15,293	16,169	5.7
Pakistan	94,656	94,780	0.1
Sri Lanka	15,754	15,647	-0.7
Western South Asia			
Bahrain	340	393	15.6
Democratic Yemen (Aden, South)	2,010	2,086	3.8
Iraq	14,479	14,509	0.2
Jordan	3,617	3,420	-5.4
Kuwait	1,573	1,652	5.0
Lebanon	2,811	2,598	-7.6
Oman	978	978	0
Qatar	267	267	0
Saudi Arabia	10,055	10,443	3.9
Syrian Arab Republic	10,084	9,739	-3.4
United Arab Emirates	825	1,374	66.5
Yemen (Sana'a, North)	6,223	5,744	-7.7
Cyprus	630	653	3.7
Israel	4,219	3,960	-6.1
Turkey	48,692	49,155	1.0

*Includes E. Timor

Arab / *cont. from p. 12*

the economy, generating considerable alienation among disillusioned students who prefer to leave their country rather than accept those limited choices.

Ultimately, it is political alienation that seems to be a key factor when educated persons decide to emigrate. The intelligentsia in many Arab states continue to be viewed with suspicion by established authorities. Increasingly, however, ruling elites in the Arab world are starting to realize that in order for them to achieve desired goals of modernization, it is important to widen the scope of the existing socio-political framework. In 1978, according to UNESCO, 20 percent of all foreign students in 45 host countries and 10 percent of all foreign students in the United States were from Arab countries. This trend is on the upswing as the yearning for higher education increases. Many U.S. private secondary schools and colleges recognize the trend and send recruiters to the Arab countries hoping to fill the desks left by the decline of students in this country.

The question remains whether the Arab students educated in other countries will choose not to return to their home states or whether they can be offered positions, both financial and political, that will encourage them to return. In the end, it will be up to the individuals to decide whether they have a responsibility to return to their home country and help fulfill its development needs.

The following may be consulted for further information. The Immigration of Third World Professionals to Canada by Don Devoretz and Dennis Maki, World Development *(January 1983);* Brain Drain from the Arab World *by Malcolm Edisichia, 1969, Cairo, Egypt;* The Arab Brain Drain *by Antoine B. Zahlan, editor, 1981, London: Ithaca Press;* Population and Development in the Middle East, *1982, Beirut: UN Economic Commission for Western Asia;* International Migration in the Arab World — Proceedings of the ECWA Population Conference, *1982, Beirut: UN Economic Commission for Western Asia.* •

—Joseph A. Kechichian

Joseph Kechichian is a doctoral candidate in foreign affairs at the University of Virginia.

ATW / *cont. from p. 2*

in the Cotswold region, where the emphasis will be on services to the elderly in rural areas. For more information, contact Tanya L. Beshgetoor at The National Council on the Aging, 600 Maryland Ave., S.W., Washington, DC 20024; telephone (202) 479-1200.

Canadian Divorces

About 4 percent more Canadians were divorced in 1982 than in 1981, bringing the 1982 total to 70,400.

The divorce rate per 100,000 population for Canada as a whole was 285.9 in 1982, while the rate per 1,000,000 married women 15 years old and over was 1,164. Ten years ago, the respective rates were 148.4 and 649.9, with the total number of divorces recorded at 32,389.

Alberta had the highest rate of divorce among the provinces and Newfoundland the lowest.

The average age at the time of divorce for men was 37.7 years and for women, 35 years. Women initiated the divorce petition nearly twice as frequently as men. Eight of 10 dependent children were awarded to the custody of the mother. Half of the couples had been married 10 years or longer, and the average duration of the marriages was 12 years.

Detailed tabulations on divorce for 1982 will be published in Vital Statistics, Volume II, Marriages and Divorces (84-205).

Arab Brain Drain: Does Anyone Benefit?

According to statistics published in 1980 by the League of Arab States, over 150,000 educated Arabs, including 24,000 physicians, 17,000 engineers, 7,000 scientists, and 200 nuclear researchers are now immigrants in industrialized countries. The continual migration of these highly educated individuals has created what is generally known as Arab brain drain.

The United Nations estimates that the migration of trained personnel from countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America to the developed world was 600,000 between 1961 and 1981. The Middle Eastern state that is most severely affected seems to be Egypt, which counted the departure of 25,000 of its specialists including 6,000 doctors between 1968 and 1980.

No one knows for sure the sociopolitical, demographic, and financial implications of this massive exodus because available data are scarce and usually unreliable.

The figures presented here illustrate the magnitude of the problem, but should be analyzed with caution. For example, in 1969, Malcolm Edisichia estimated that the brain drain from all Arab countries was between 5,000 and 7,000 people. Yet, according to another author, Alan Fechter, 5,798 scientists and engineers from the Arab world were admitted to the United States alone between 1966 and 1977. Other data suggest that in 1982 over 50 percent of Arab physicians, 23 percent of engineers, and 15 percent of scientists were working outside their country of citizenship

Brain drain is a problem faced not only by the Arab region, but also by the less developed countries in general. Arab brain drain should be distinguished from the migration of professionals between the labor-exporting Arab countries (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Sudan, Syria, and the Yemens) and labor-importing Arab countries (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates). The drain includes only the overflow of Arab manpower to the industrialized countries of Western Europe, North America, and Australia.

In most instances, the first type of migration is temporary, usually for the duration of a specific project. The second type, however, tends to be permanent and often involves changing citizenship. The distinction is important, particularly when the permanence of the emigration and the magnitude and the regularity of remittances of workers to their country of origin are assessed together.

In the case of intra-Arab migration, workers' remittances tend, on the average, to be higher and more frequent, whereas the permanent exodus to the West not only increases the material losses, estimated to be $12 billion in 1981 alone, but also illustrates the desire on the part of the migrants for higher wages.

Furthermore, the outflow of Arab talent occurs not only because of the lack of opportunities in the home countries. Today, the economic argument for brain drain is not as strong in the Arab world as it was in the 1960s. While some people are satisfied with the increased opportunities in the Middle East, others choose to emigrate for reasons ranging from political instability to social factors in their home states. This is especially evident in the Gulf states where the impact of the increasing migration of Asian workers into the region may endanger its stability and cohesion.

Some Arab states are beginning to offer incentives to discourage their intelligentsia from emigrating. Among the policies recently instituted in Iraq, Syria, Kuwait, Egypt, and Libya among others, are inducement programs that increase wages, offer social security benefits, and establish research facilities within existing scientific institutions. In addition, certain states have enacted legislation to reduce emigration and repatriate those who already serve in foreign countries by offering special allowances, free land and housing, transportation, and especially, a guaranteed position.

Despite such incentives, the net outflow of educated Arabs continues to rise. In 1980, for example, the Arab-British Chamber of Commerce on Arab Manpower estimated that there were in the United Kingdom about 600 Arab academics and scientists, 1,800 journalists, 6,400 physicians, and 45,000 people with university qualifications working in financial services.

In another case, the Beirut-based magazine *al-Usbu al-Arabi*, reported that Lebanon experienced a massive exodus of its skilled manpower not only to fill temporary positions in the Arab Gulf, but also to permanently settle in Europe, North America, and Australia. The magazine conservatively estimated the 1979 emigration to be around 55,000.

Finally, while it is generally assumed that brain drain in the Arab world benefits the states of the Arabian Peninsula, *Kuwait Times* reported in 1982 that the period 1971-1977 (at the height of the oil boom) witnessed the emigration of 529 professionals from Kuwait, 422 from Saudi Arabia, 49 from Bahrain, 37 from United Arab Emirates and 20 from Qatar.

According to Antoine Zahlan, perhaps the foremost authority on the question of Arab brain drain, a novel approach to the problem is required if there is any possibility of altering the present emigration of skilled Arabs. In some cases, "modern enclaves" have been created within which the beneficiaries of economic development can pursue a modern lifestyle. Yet, because they cannot absorb all well-educated Arabs, these "enclaves" may actually encourage emigration, because they show people what it would be like if they were living elsewhere. This is further exacerbated when higher education in the Arab world appears to cater to the needs of the modern enclave at the expense of the traditional sector of

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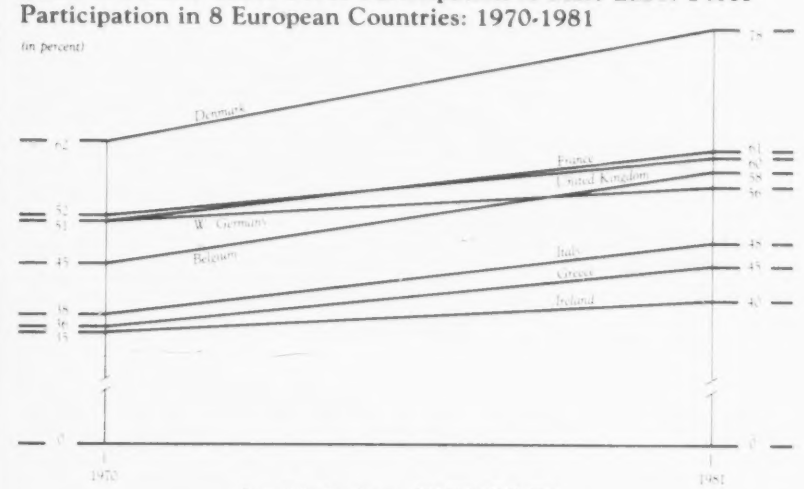
Ratio of Female Labor Force Participation to Male Labor Force Participation in 8 European Countries: 1970-1981



Source: Labor Force Statistics: 1970-1981 OECD (1983)

In Europe, the Sexes Work Alike

In less than a decade the narrowing of the gap between the employment activity rates of men and women in Europe has been spectacular.

A recent issue of the quarterly *Eurostat News*, a publication of the Statistical Office of the European Communities, reports that the employment activity rate of European women between the ages of 30 and 50 increased from just over 40 percent in 1973 to more than 50 percent in 1981. In the 1970s women tended to withdraw from the job market when they had young children and started working again around age 35, but that trend has disappeared.

"This change in the behavior of women in relation to the labor market becomes even more impressive if the results are analyzed on a cohort basis," *Eurostat News* reports. "If women who were aged between 25 and 29 in 1973 had maintained the same pattern of behavior toward work between 1973 and 1981, their activity rate in 1981 (at which time they would have been between ages 33 and 37) would have remained at 46 percent as it was in 1973.

"If they had had the same pattern of behavior as existed in 1973 their activity rate would have gone down to 41 percent in 1981. Yet, their activity rate has actually increased from 46 percent to 52 percent. And this phenomenon applies to every age group without exception."

The working behavior of young women in the labor market is now almost comparable with that of young men.

There are differences in the individual member states of the European community, however. The gap between men's and women's labor market behavior has narrowed particularly rapidly in Denmark where there is a high proportion of part-time work. The narrowing of the gap has been fairly slow in West Germany, the United Kingdom, and Ireland.

It seems likely, according to *Eurostat*, that 30 years from now there will be an additional 20 million women in the labor market in Europe.

One place where the impact of women in the labor force is showing up most clearly is in services jobs which have increased in Europe by about 50 percent from 41 million in 1960 to 62 million in 1982. The rea-

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COUNTRY PROFILE: SRI LANKA

sons are clear. In 1981, the services sector employed almost as many women as men — about 46 percent and about 15 percent of jobs in the services sector are part-time compared with only 5 percent in industry.

"These two characteristics are closely correlated," *Eurostat News* observes. "Women have a virtual monopoly over part-time work. (In 1981, 85 percent of the part-time jobs were held by women.) This is all the more remarkable when one considers that the percentage of men working part-time is still minimal; only 4 percent in the services sector and a mere 1 percent in industry."•

Around the World

Services Grow In Japan

Services are taking a larger bite of the household budget in Japan, according to results of the 1982 Household Budget surveys conducted by the Prime Minister's Office.

Expenditures for education rose 4.2 percent since 1981, for culture and amusement, 4.3 percent, and for insurance and medical services, 2.4 percent.

Increases in Japanese income and leisure time have spurred growth of the service industry in both consumer-related and business-related services.

For more information, see *Focus Japan*, August 1983, Japan Trade Center offices, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10017.

West German Census Is On

The West German Constitutional Court upheld the proposed 1983 census on December 15 in a landmark decision that interprets the Basic Law as guaranteeing the individual the "right to self-determination regarding personal information."

The census was to have been taken in April, but citizen groups objected that it constituted a total inventory of personal data. On April 13, 1983, just before the census date, the high court issued a temporary injunction against the census. Justices heard hundreds of citizen appeals charging that the census law violated the individuals right to privacy.

The December ruling allows the census to be carried out, but requires that the law first be amended to provide protection against the unlimited collection, storage, use and transfer of personal data. The date for the restored census has not yet been set.

Report on Japanese Teens

Interviews have already begun for a new report by Marplan on Japan's 14 million teenagers — the group between the ages of 12 and 19 who were born between 1964 and 1971 and brought up mainly in the 1970s.

Marplan Japan will interview 75 teenagers in depth, and conduct face-to-face interviews with an additional 1,000 teenagers selected from public and private middle schools and high schools, junior colleges, universities, and from among teenagers who are employed. The interviews will be conducted in Tokyo, Mitaka, Musashino, Yokohama, and Kawasaki.

Topics to be covered include their daily lives and the effect of relative affluence on their lifestyles, their relationships with parents, other adults, siblings, the potential schism between old and new values, hopes and expectations among others.

This report is the first of a series of special focus studies which will also include The New Singles, The New Older Women, The New Marrieds, and The New Rich. The project is being supervised by Marplan's managing director, Robert J. Wilk and managed by Dr. Jeanne Binstock, special projects director who was formerly director of research for The Trend Report.

Special client questions can be included in the project. The report will be issued this spring, available by subscription. For more information, contact Wilk or Binstock at Marplan Japan, 3rd Floor, Jichiro Kaikan, 1-Rokuban-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 102, Japan; telephone 265-5411.

New Representative In Latin America

Tomas Frejka has been named The Population Council's senior representative for Latin America and the Caribbean. Frejka will be responsible for the Council's program in the area of population and development, family planning program design and evaluation, contraceptive introduction, and child health and mortality.

New Catalog Available

The UCLA Latin American Center has a new publications catalog with listings and ordering information for statistical books the Center has published. To obtain a copy, write to UCLA Latin American Center, University of California, 405 Hilgard Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90024; telephone (213) 825-6634.

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The World's Largest Metro Areas

If you put all the people who live in cities of one million or more population together, they would make up the population of three United States or a dozen United Kingdoms. Even so, only about 15 percent of the world's population lives in the 247 metropolitan areas of a million or more people. Their total population is about 713 million.

According to the annual list of metropolitan areas compiled by Rand McNally, the largest is Tokyo-Yokohama in Japan, with more than 27 million people in 1984. In second place is New York, with a metro population just under 17 million people. Close on its heels are Mexico City (16.7 million and growing much faster than New York) and Japan's second largest metropolis, Osaka-Kobe-Kyoto (16.3 million people). The Osaka metro area was the world's third largest until overtaken by Mexico City in 1983. At current growth rates Mexico City will pass New York during 1984, but would not surpass Tokyo-Yokohama as the world's largest metropolis until 2003.

Huge metropolitan populations are a recent phenomenon. No one knows for certain whether any city reached a million people before modern times, although such is claimed for Imperial Rome and for some Asian cities. The first modern western center to reach one million was London, just after 1800. Tokyo and Peking may well have been larger than London at that time. But as late as 1870, barely a century ago, there were only seven places in the whole world with more than a million people. Those seven included 1 percent of the total population of the world. By 1900, there were 20 places with more than a million residents. A decade ago, in 1974, there were 185 such places, with a total population of 523 million, about 13.6 percent of the world total. In just the last 10 years, 62 additional world metros have passed the 1 million mark.

Definition

Rand McNally strives for comparability in its list of metro areas. Each includes at least one central city plus the continuously built-up area around the city. In addition the metro area includes other communities if the bulk of their population is supported by commuting to the central city and the adjacent built-up area. In practice, territory is included if it has at least 15 percent of its population commuting to the core area, except if it is relatively sparsely settled or more than 35 percent of its workers engage in agriculture. This definition includes suburbs and satellite centers even if separated from the main city by some not yet urbanized land.

The concept is generally the same as that used to define metropolitan statistical areas (MSAs) in New England. Like the New England MSAs, the Rand McNally metro areas are defined in terms of minor civil divisions, not whole counties. For some countries, officially defined metropolitan areas correspond closely enough to Rand McNally's concept to be adopted directly.

Rand McNally reviews the definition of each area as new census results become available. Once defined, annually. The areas over 5 million are estimated as closely as possible are estimated as closely as possible each year (see table). The remaining metro areas are assigned to one of four broad categories: 3 to 5 million; 2 to 3 million; 1.5 to 2 million; and 1 to 1.5 million.

Many reference books contain lists of the world's largest urban or metropolitan centers, but Rand McNally's appears to be the one that offers the greatest comparability. In some others the sources, definitions,

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Metropolitan Areas of Five Million or More, 1984

(thousands)

*Central city only, excluding areas administered by the city government.

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Rank 1984	*Estimated Population Metropolitan Area*	*Largest Central City*	*Annual Percent Change*
1 Tokyo-Yokohama, Japan	27,100	8,300*	1.0
2 New York, U.S.	16,750	6,900	0.2
3 Mexico City, Mexico	16,700	10,000	3.6
4 Osaka-Kobe-Kyoto, Japan	16,300	2,600	0.6
5 Sao Paulo, Brazil	14,200	9,200	3.6
6 Seoul, South Korea	12,800	9,400	4.1
7 Moscow, U.S.S.R.	12,550	8,300*	1.2
8 Calcutta, India	11,800	3,300	1.7
9 Buenos Aires, Argentina	11,200	2,900	1.4
10 London, United Kingdom	11,000	6,700	−0.1
11 Bombay, India	10,900	9,000	2.8
12 Los Angeles, U.S.	10,400	3,000	1.5
13 Cairo, Egypt	9,900	5,800	2.6
14 Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	9,650	5,350	2.1
15 Paris, France	9,500	2,150	0.3
16 Shanghai, China	9,200	6,500*	1.8
17 Delhi-New Delhi, India	8,100	5,300	3.8
18 Chicago, U.S.	7,850	2,900	0.2
19 Manila, Philippines	7,650	1,650	3.5
20 Jakarta, Indonesia	7,500	7,250	3.4
21 Beijing, China	6,400	5,800*	2.2
22 Tehran, Iran	6,100	5,850	3.0
23 Bangkok, Thailand	5,800	3,100	2.8
24 Karachi, Pakistan	5,700	5,300	3.6
25 Leningrad, U.S.S.R.	5,600	4,300*	1.0
26 Taipei, Taiwan	5,450	2,350	3.4
27 Istanbul, Turkey	5,400	3,050	3.8
28 Philadelphia, U.S.	5,100	1,600	−0.3
29 Essen (Ruhr Area), West Germany	5,050	650	−0.5
30 Bogota, Colombia	5,000	4,900	5.3
TOTAL, 30 metropolitan areas	296,650	153,400	2.0

The Kingdom of Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka's economy is in transition between socialist and free-market policies, and the shift may result in confusion for outside investors. After gaining independence from Great Britain in 1948 (when the country was called Ceylon), Sri Lanka promoted social welfare by building schools and clinics and subsidizing food; every citizen was entitled to free weekly rations of rice. Manufacturing and industry were nationalized and imports were stopped to protect local business against foreign competition.

The United National Party elected in 1977 has been shifting the economy to a free-enterprise system, however, and the results are beginning to show. Foreign investment is encouraged through a free-trade zone and tax holidays modeled after Singapore's trade policies. Price controls and import barriers have been lifted and greater incentives offered to private entrepreneurs. As a result, real GNP growth has averaged 6 percent since 1977, and foreign trade expanded fivefold between 1976 and 1980. The United States estimates that Sri Lanka's economy will grow by 15 percent in 1983 and by 17 percent in 1984.

But the open economy has created a new set of problems. Inflation has fluctuated between 20 and 40 percent; government is spending twice its earnings; and imports are twice the value of exports. The World Bank lists Sri Lanka as the 18th poorest country in the world, yet hopeful indicators such as a high literacy rate and low infant mortality make investors confident of the country's commitment to economic development. Western donors gave Sri Lanka over $800 million in grants and low-interest loans in 1982, up from $134 million in 1976. The Reagan administration is providing $100 million in aid in the hope that a success in Sri Lanka will be copied by other developing countries.

Population Growth

The 1981 census recorded 14.8 million persons, up from 12.7 million in 1971. The population grew by 17 percent during the decade between censuses, and its average annual rate of growth is currently 2.2 percent. The Population Reference Bureau estimates a 1983 population of 15.6 million.

The Sri Lanka census is a "de facto" count, meaning individuals are counted where they were between 6 P.M. and midnight on the night of March 17, 1981, regardless of their usual place of residence. The U.S. census, by contrast, counts persons according to their usual place of residence.

The crude birth rate of 28 births per 1,000 population is the lowest of nine Middle South Asian countries and is slightly below the average of 30 births per 1,000 population for Asia as a whole. Its crude death rate of 6 deaths per 1,000 population is considerably below the Middle South Asian average of 15 and the Asian average of 11 deaths per 1,000 population. Part of the reason for Sri Lanka's low death rate is its extremely low infant mortality rate. In a region of the world where an average of 90 to 100 babies of every 1,000 born, die before their first birthday, Sri Lanka's infant mortality rate is only 37 deaths per 1,000 live births.

If the country continues its current rate of growth and minimal level of immigration, the population will double in 32 years. This is about the same doubling time as its northern neighbor India, but the current population is so small that the consequences of rapid growth are not yet as severe as in India. *International Demographics* projects a population of 21 million Sri Lankans by the year 2000.

Regions and Cities

Sri Lanka is divided into 24 administrative districts. They range in size from 77,500 persons in the northeastern district of Mullaitivu to almost 1.7 million in the southwestern district of Colombo, location of the capital city of Colombo. In fact, with a population of 1.3 million, the capital city accounts for three-quarters of the population of the district. Other major cities are Jaffna (271,000), Kandy (147,000), and Galle (168,000).

In a country the size of West Virginia (66,000 square kilometers), population density is about 226 persons per square kilometer. Density is highest in the district of Colombo (1,000 to 3,000 persons per square kilometer) and the neighboring coastal districts of Gampaha and Kalutara (500 to 1,000 persons per square kilometer). The central district of Kandy and the southern coastal district of Matara are in this density range as well, while all other districts av-

erage fewer than 500 persons per square kilometer.

Four districts have a million or more persons each: Colombo (1.7 million); Kandy (1.1 million); Kurunegala (1.2 million); and Gampaha (1.4 million). Together these districts account for about one-third of Sri Lanka's population. Districts with the highest annual average rate of growth between 1971 and 1981 (i.e. of 5 percent a year or more) were Vavuniya, Mullaitivu, and Anuradhapura. The only district which actually lost population (by −0.3 percent per year) was Nuwara Eliya.

All municipal, urban, and town council areas make up the urban sector of Sri Lanka. All other areas, including estates (tea, rubber, and coconut plantations left over from colonial rule) are classified as rural. The Estate Sector consists of all estates of 20 or more acres with 10 or more resident laborers. Only 22 percent of the population is classified as urban, while 72 percent are rural and 6 percent live on estates. The most highly urbanized district is of course, Colombo (74 percent), while the least urbanized is Moneragala (2 percent). The district with the highest proportion of the population living on estates (60 percent) is Nuwara Eliya.

Ethnicity and Religion

The major ethnic groups in Sri Lanka are the Sinhala, Sri Lanka Tamil, Indian Tamil, Sri Lanka Moor, Burgher, and Malays. Persons not belonging to one of these six groups are classified as "other." Classification by ethnic group relates to racial or ethnic affiliation, and Tamils of Indian origin are recorded as Indian Tamil even though they or their parents may have acquired Sri Lanka citizenship by registration.

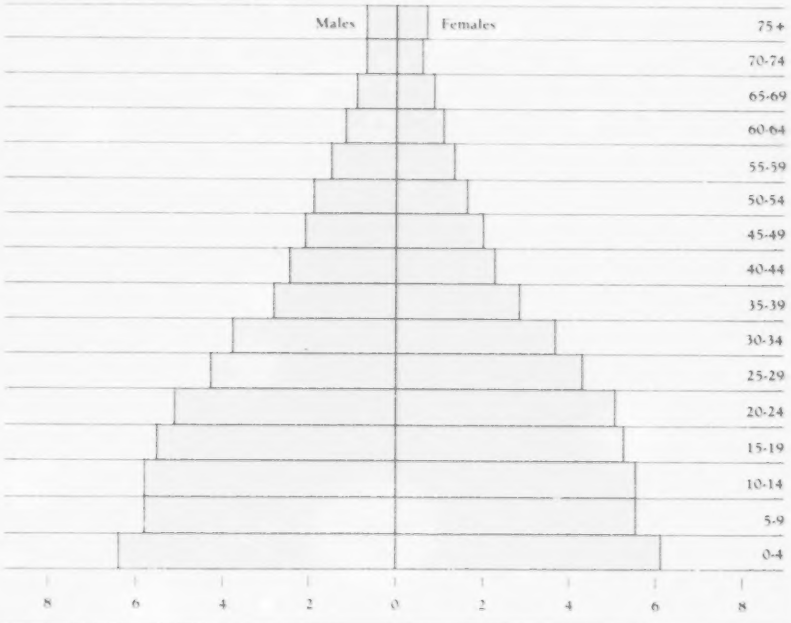
The largest ethnic group in 1981 was Sinhalese, which accounted for 74 percent of the population (up from 72 percent in 1971). Sri Lanka Tamil composed 13 percent of the population in 1981, an increase from 11 percent in 1971. Indian Tamil were 6 percent of the population, from 9 percent a decade earlier, while Sri Lanka Moor were about 7 percent of the population at both dates. All other groups were less than 1 percent of the population in 1981.

In addition to ethnicity, the Sri Lankan census collects information on religious affiliation. According to the 1981 census, 70 percent of all Sri Lankans are Buddhists, a slight increase over the 67 percent recorded in 1971. Another 16 percent are Hindu; 8 percent are Muslim; 7 percent are Roman Catholic; and less than 1 percent profess other faiths. The share of the Hindu population has declined slightly since 1971, when it was 18 percent, while Muslims and Roman Catholics remained proportionately the same. Christians other than Roman Catholics numbered about 100,000 in 1981.

Buddhism emphasizes respect for all forms of life, and Sri Lanka has established 50 wildlife refuges protecting 85 species of mammals and 425 species of birds. Special reverence is held for the elephant, the only animal deemed worthy of carrying a

Population of Sri Lanka by Age and Sex: 1981*

(in percent)



Age	Total	Male	Female
All Ages	14,848,000	7,568,000	7,280,000
0-4	1,857,000	949,000	908,000
5-9	1,689,000	856,000	832,000
10-14	1,690,000	864,000	826,000
15-19	1,608,000	815,000	792,000
20-24	1,510,000	753,000	756,000
25-29	1,273,000	638,000	636,000
30-34	1,123,000	570,000	553,000
35-39	839,000	423,000	416,000
40-44	698,000	361,000	338,000
45-49	610,000	309,000	301,000
50-54	543,000	284,000	258,000
55-59	422,000	222,000	201,000
60-64	342,000	184,000	158,000
65-69	256,000	134,000	122,000
70-74	181,000	98,000	83,000
75+	208,000	107,000	100,000

*Numbers may not add to total because of rounding.
Source: Sri Lanka Department of Census and Statistics, Preliminary Release No. 1.

casket containing sacred relics of the Lord Buddha. The biggest threat to the elephant population now is the Mahaweli River Dam Project. While the scheme will provide thousands of jobs and double hydroelectric power on the island, it will also destroy the forests now inhabited by elephants. Sri Lanka's Department of Wildlife Conservation is trying to relocate these animals and other endangered species to a network of national parks.

Age Distribution

Sri Lanka is younger than the U.S. population. In 1981, 35 percent of Sri Lankans were under age 15 versus 23 percent of Americans. A falling birth rate is reflected in a slight decline in the proportion of the population under 15, which was 39 percent in 1971. Just over 4 percent of the population was aged 65 and over in both 1971 and 1981.

Because of a decline in the young population, the dependency ratio had declined from 76 in 1971 to 66 in 1981. This means that of every 100 persons in the productive age category 15 to 64, there are now 10 fewer dependents than a decade ago.

The median age of the population was 21.4 in 1981, a rise of 1.7 years over the 1971 median age of 19.7. Median age in the U.S. in 1980 was 30 years. Life expectancy is 65 for men and 68 for women, above the Asian average of 60 and far higher than the South Asian average of 50.

Households and Families

There were 2.7 million households in Sri Lanka in 1981, with an average size of 5.4 persons per household. Seventy percent of all households were extended beyond the nuclear family with a relative other than spouse or children, and 14 percent of households contained a nonrelative. Five percent of all households reported a visitor on the night the census was taken. Approximately 17 percent of Sri Lankan households were headed by women in 1981, half of whom were widowed.

Urban households numbered 504,000, or 18 percent of the country's total. Approximately 2.2 million households were classified as rural, or 82 percent of the total. Urban households were more likely to contain another relative than rural households. For example, among 504,000 household heads recorded for urban areas, there were 538,000 relatives of heads living in households. In rural areas, only 64 percent of households contained relatives other than the spouse or children. This situation may reflect greater crowding in urban areas.

There are two recognized forms of marriage in Sri Lanka: registered and customary. A person whose marriage is legally registered is classified as married (registered), while one who claims marriage according to custom or repute but whose marriage is not registered is classified as married (customary). In 1981, 8 percent of persons aged 40 to 44 were living in customary marriages and 79 percent were in registered marriages. Only 7 percent remained unmarried by age 40.

Customary marriages are more common in rural than urban areas. Among those aged 40 to 44 in 1981, 5 percent of urban dwellers and 9 percent of rural dwellers were in a customary marriage. The prevalence of customary marriages has declined since 1971, when 19 percent of all married women were in customary marriages; the proportion is now 11 percent.

As in the U.S., Sri Lankan women now delay marriage until later ages. Among women aged 25 to 29, the proportion never married rose from 25 to 30 percent between 1971 and 1981. For those aged 30 to 34, the proportion single increased from 11 to 16 percent. Over 80 percent of all women are married by age 35.

The average age at first marriage increased from 23.5 years in 1971 to 24.4 years in 1981 for women, while it decreased slightly from 28.0 to 27.9 for men during the same period. Brides and grooms in Sri Lanka are thus older than their American counterparts, where the average age at first marriage was 22 for women and 25 for men in 1981.

The rising age at marriage has contributed to Sri Lanka's lowered

Population of Sri Lanka by District: 1981

District	*Number*	*% of Total*	*Average Annual Rate of growth 1971-1981*	*Sex Ratio (Males per 100 Females)*
Sri Lanka	14,850,001	100.0	1.7	103
Colombo	1,698,322	11.4	1.3	111
Gampaha	1,389,490	9.4	1.8	101
Kalutara	827,189	5.6	1.4	98
Kandy	1,126,296	7.6	0.3	99
Matale	357,441	2.4	1.4	102
Nuwara Eliya	522,219	3.5	−0.3	100
Galle	814,579	5.5	1.1	94
Matara	644,231	4.3	1.0	94
Hambantota	424,102	2.9	2.4	104
Jaffna	831,112	5.6	1.9	98
Mannar	106,940	0.7	3.9	114
Vavuniya	95,904	0.6	5.1	114
Mullaitivu	77,512	0.5	6.3	123
Batticaloa	330,899	2.2	2.7	102
Amparai	388,786	2.6	3.8	109
Trincomalee	256,790	1.7	3.3	115
Kurunegala	1,212,755	8.2	1.8	103
Puttalam	493,344	3.3	2.9	102
Anuradhapura	587,822	4.0	4.5	113
Polonnaruwa	262,753	1.8	5.1	130
Badulla	642,893	4.3	0.5	102
Moneragala	279,743	1.9	4.0	117
Ratnapura	796,468	5.4	1.8	106
Kegalle	682,411	4.6	0.6	98

Source: Sri Lanka Department of Census and Statistics, Preliminary Release No. 1

birth rate. Changing social and economic conditions have reduced the birth rate from 38 per 1,000 population in the 1950s to its current rate of 28 per 1,000 population. The average number of children per woman has declined from 5.7 in the 1950s to a current rate of 3.6.

Housing

There were 2.8 million occupied housing units counted in 1981, up 27 percent from 1971. Housing units increased 10 percent more than population during the decade.

In Sri Lanka there are three types of housing — permanent, semi-permanent, and improvised. Permanent units are made of durable materials such as cement, brick or tile. Improvised units are made of non-durable material such as palm leaves. Semi-permanent units are a mixture of the two.

Under the Sri Lankan definition, a housing unit is a place that has its own entrance. Shanties and sheds are counted as housing units.

The average number of people per unit was 5.2 in 1981. The average unit had 2.5 rooms.

In the country as a whole, 42 percent of the homes were permanent, 52 percent semi-permanent, and 6 percent improvised. In urban areas, 68 percent were permanent, compared with only 38 percent in rural areas.

In 1981, 17 percent of the units had piped in water, but in urban areas, 46 percent of units had piped water. Seventy-three percent of units took their water from wells.

Electric lighting is used in 15 percent of homes, up from 9 percent in 1971. Eighty-two percent of units use kerosene for lighting and firewood is the dominant cooking fuel — used in 94 percent of all units.

Sixty-nine percent of homes are owner-occupied — 57 percent in urban areas and 80 percent in rural areas.

Education

Literacy is defined as the ability to read and write at least one language. Sinhala is the official language, Tamil is a national language, and English is widely spoken in cities due to the British influence. Sri Lanka has one of Asia's highest literacy rates, with 86 percent of the population literate in at least one language in 1981. This is an increase over the 78 percent literacy rate in 1971.

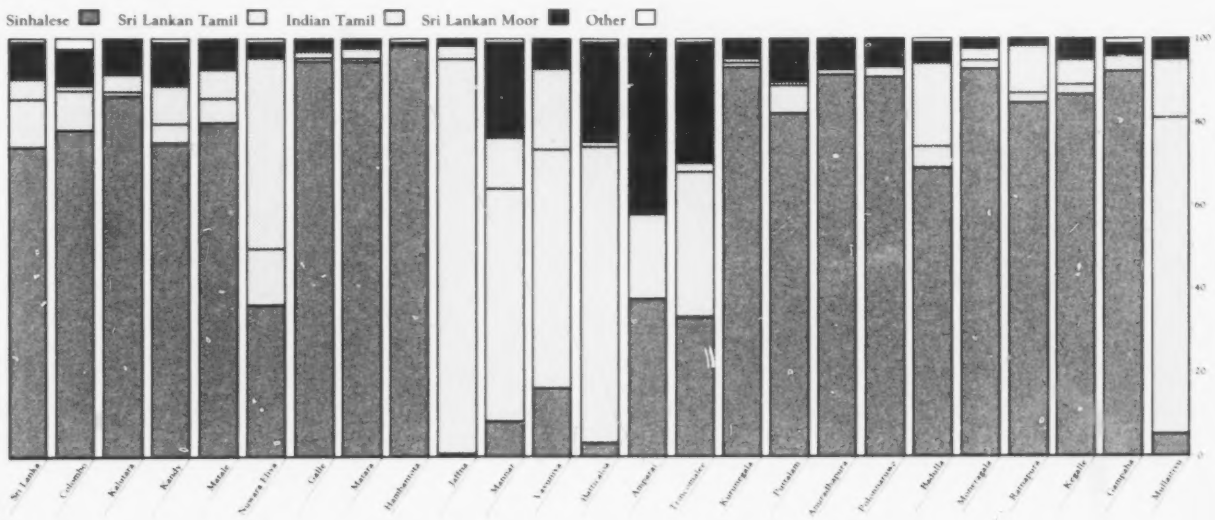
Males have a higher literacy rate than females at every age, with the average for males being 90 percent and that for females 82 percent in 1981. Urban areas have higher proportions of literate population (93 percent) than rural areas (84 percent). Literacy rose by about 10 percentage points for women in the last decade and about 5 percentage points for men, while it rose 7 to 8 percent in both urban and rural areas.

Districts with literacy rates of 90 percent or more include Gampaha, Colombo, and Jaffna. Batticaloa had the lowest literacy rate of 66 percent in 1981, a position it held in 1971 with a rate of 57 percent. Burghers are the ethnic group with the

Ethnic Origins of the Sri Lankan Republic by District: 1981

The ethnic mix in Sri Lanka is partially responsible for political instability in that country. Firms that wish to staff a manufacturing plant must be aware of the ethnic mix within the province where the plant is located in order to represent all groups proportionately, and give authority to members of the appropriate ethnic groups.

Ethnic Origins of the Sri Lankan Population



Source: *Sri Lanka Department of Census and Statistics*, Preliminary Release No. 1

highest literacy (97 percent), followed by Malays (91 percent); Sinhalese (88 percent); Sri Lanka Tamils (87 percent); Sri Lanka Moors (79 percent); and Indian Tamils (67 percent).

The proportion of the population aged 10 and over that is literate in English is 12 percent. There is wide variation among ethnic groups, however. Three-quarters of Burghers are literate in English, and 44 percent of Malays. Indian Tamils are least likely to know English (5 percent). Among groups with literacy in multiple languages, Malays are most likely to know Sinhala, Tamil, and English (19 percent versus 1 to 9 percent among other ethnic groups). Only 2 percent of the population aged 10 and over is literate in all three languages.

The proportion of children attending school has increased significantly since 1971. Schooling is compulsory until age 12 and is free through the university level. The minimum age for admission was lowered from six years in 1971 to five years in 1981. Among children aged five to nine, attendance rose from 61 percent in 1971 to 84 percent in 1981. For those aged 10 to 14, the increase was from 70 to 82 percent, and for those aged 15 to 19, the increase was from 34 to 42 percent. Attendance rates are similar for girls and boys.

Educational attainment has also improved. The proportion of persons completing primary school (through grade five) rose from 51 to 68 percent among males and from 42 to 62 percent among females between 1971 and 1981. Those without a primary education declined from 27 to 14 percent for males and from 23 to 11 percent for females. Those with a higher degree are still a minority: only 9 percent of both men and women had completed more than a primary school education in 1981, a slight increase from 5 to 6 percent in 1971.

Labor Force and Income

There are about 5.6 million persons in Sri Lanka's labor force, or 62 percent of all those aged 15 to 64. Agriculture employs 46 percent of all workers, industry and commerce another 29 percent, and services 19 percent; the "other" category accounted for 6 percent of all workers in 1983. Unemployment was reduced from 24 to 15 percent between 1977 and 1983.

Nearly 2 million Sri Lankan workers are members of organized labor unions, although membership is fragmented among more than 1,500 unions. Three large unions of agricultural workers from the tea, rubber, and coconut estates account for nearly one-third of all organized workers. White-collar employees are more likely to be unionized than in the U.S., particularly those who work in government. Most of the unorganized labor force are small farmers.

Sri Lanka's constitution of 1978 made travel the right of every citizen, and by 1981 an estimated 70,000 Sri Lankans were working in the Middle East and sending home more than $200 million in foreign exchange. Although many of those emigrating are unskilled, the country has also lost many professionals in a "brain drain." The government refuses to discourage these emigrants, but is trying to recover its losses by expanding training programs for the young and literate labor force. Government development programs have created a demand for diverse occupations, like skilled construction workers and English stenographers, which exceeds the current supply.

Per capita income in 1981 was $302, above average for Middle South Asia but far below overall Asian standards. One estimate is

Structure of the Economically Active Population, Sri Lanka: 1981

	Total	*Professional, technical*	*Admin., Managerial*	*Clerical*	*Sales*	*Service*	*Agriculture, hunting, fishing*	*Production, transportation*
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	2,293,337	6,801	—	14,301	4,403	25,858	2,173,446	68,528
Mining & quarrying	63,442	—	—	630	649	—	—	62,163
Manufacturing	572,047	5,077	7,677	28,350	19,590	11,786	7,705	491,862
Electr., gas & water	19,178	619	—	1,078	594	—	—	16,348
Construction	216,100	6,063	1,686	12,698	509	7,247	—	187,155
Wholesale/retail trade restaurants & hotels	485,797	1,658	4,445	22,565	357,514	57,250	1,921	40,444
Transport, storage & communication	202,365	4,425	1,608	69,739	539	12,571	1,990	110,975
Financing, insur., real estate & business serv.	52,640	5,708	2,266	29,454	6,733	3,361	—	5,118
Community, social & personal services	644,627	238,853	7,140	94,748	4,773	143,778	4,282	138,111
Not adequately defined	301,925	—	539	567	649	3,557	1,896	294,717
Unemployed	863,528	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	5,714,986	269,204	25,361	274,130	395,953	265,408	2,191,240	1,415,421

Source: 1982 Yearbook of Labor Statistics, *International Labor Organization*

that one-half of all families in Sri Lanka have incomes less than $15 per month. Daily wages in 1981 averaged Rs30 ($1.70) for skilled workers; Rs22 ($1.20) for semi-skilled workers; and Rs17 (less than $1.00) for unskilled workers. Estimates are that these low rates will not last long as the demand for workers increases. For now, however, the country's competitive wage rates are one of Sri Lanka's biggest selling points to foreign investors.

Communications

Newspapers are widely read by Sri Lankans. There are four English dailies and a number of weeklies and dailies in Sinhalese and Tamil. The government owns most of the newspapers. International newspapers such as the *Asian Wall Street Journal* and the *International Herald Tribune* circulate within the city of Colombo.

Radio and television also are primarily government-controlled. Television is a relatively new phenomenon in Sri Lanka. The Independent Television Network began broadcasting in 1978 and covers only Colombo. The other network, Rupavahini, began service in 1982 and is nationwide. Local radio shows are broadcast in English, Sinhalese, and Tamil. Radio service operates 18 hours per day, while television is available only in the evenings.

Sources of Information

Preliminary results from the 1981 census are available from the Department of Census and Statistics, Ministry of Planning Implementation, P.O. Box 563, Colombo 7, Sri Lanka. These volumes are published with English translations.

Preliminary Release No. 1 (33 pages) summarizes data on sex, age, ethnicity, and religion for the country as a whole and for districts and urban/rural areas. *Preliminary Release No. 2* (56 pages) contains population tables based on a 10 percent sample weighted to represent the total population. Topics include marital status, literacy, and educational attainment by sex, district, and urban/rural status. A special report titled "Statistics on Physically Disabled Persons" (73 pages) summarizes type of disability by sex and urban/rural residence.

Else Skjonsberg, a Norwegian sociologist, has published a 143-page book titled *A Special Caste? Tamil Women of Sri Lanka* (Zed Press, London, 1982). It reports the special interaction of sex and caste in determining life chances in a small rural village. The project was funded by the Norwegian Agency for International Development in the early 1970s. The American distributor of the book is Lawrence Hill and Co., 520 Riverside Avenue, Westport, CT 06880. The price is $9.95 in paper.

The Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation published a *Business Profile of Sri Lanka* in June 1981. The 28-page booklet provides information needed by foreigners doing business in Sri Lanka. It can be ordered from 1 Queen's Road Central, Hong Kong; telephone: 5-267-7111. •

—Daphne Spain

Publications

Population Mobility and Wealth Transfers in Indonesia and Other Third World Societies by Graeme J. Hugo, 1983, Honolulu, Hawaii: East-West Population Institute, 50 pp., $12, 8 times a year. Order from East-West Population Institute, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, HI 96848.

This paper, part of the subscription series of the East-West Population Institute, examines the role of remittances in redistributing income. The paper emphasizes not the people who move but rather the "links they establish and maintain with the families whom they leave behind," and how those links affect income distribution.

Focusing on Indonesia, Hugo shows that there are differences in the amount of remittances between migrants who move permanently to the city and those who move temporarily as a means of gaining more income, but always retain their links to the original village.

A two-page chart provides a handy typology of rural-to-urban population mobility as it occurs in the Third World. For example, "seasonal or shuttle migrants" search for work to augment their meager agricultural income. According to the chart, they have little financial or social investment in the city, sleep in group-rented rooms or employer-provided barracks, interact socially almost entirely with other migrants from their own village, and are employed in day labor or other traditional sectors. They remit the bulk of their income to their village, usually keep their source of work in the village, and retain their social and political roles in their original village.

Population: Labour Force — Occupation Trends (92-920), 1983, Ottawa, Canada: Statistics Canada, $8.50. Order from Publication Sales and Services, Room 1710, Main Building, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A OT6 Canada.

Between 1971 and 1981, the experienced labor force grew by 39 percent in Canada. However, some occupations posted growth rates much higher than the national average. There were especially large increases in supervisors of bookkeeping, account-recording and related occupations (157 percent); electrical engineers (78 percent); programmer analysts (172 percent); welfare and community service workers (152 percent); electronic data processing equipment operators (182 percent).

In other occupations, however, the number of workers decreased over the same period. For example, there was a 32 percent decline in street vendors and door-to-door sellers; a 26 percent drop in pressers, apparel and furnishings service; and a 39 percent decrease in tailors and dressmakers.

continued

The largest occupational groups among men continue to be motor vehicle mechanics and repairers, carpenters, farmers, and janitors, although their growth rates were moderate. Similarly, clerical, sales and teaching jobs are still the occupations of the majority of women.

"Big Fish, Small Pond," by Thomas J. Bellows, in *The Wilson Quarterly*, Winter 1983, pp. 66-82, single issues, $4.50. Order from Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, Smithsonian Institution Building, Washington, DC 20560.

Lee Kuan Yew has been Singapore's Prime Minister since 1959, and it is his influence that has shaped the development of this bustling city-state. This article provides important background information to the population characteristics and trends of Singapore.

Reviewing Singapore's economic development, the author concludes, "Singapore's problem today is a labor shortage. With an economy growing by 8 percent annually during the 1970s, the island began to run out of people. To lure workers, companies began offering TV sets to new employees or enrolling them in special lotteries. Last year, some 150,000 foreigners, mostly Malays, but also including Thais, Filipinos, Sri Lankans, Indians, and Indonesians, were granted work permits in Singapore, usually taking jobs that Singaporeans now find unacceptably menial or low paying. Needless to say, the government's successful efforts at population control — required to prevent overcrowding on the small island — have done nothing to relieve the manpower shortage."

Singapore hopes to have eliminated the need for foreign workers by 1991. Its plan hinges on increasing minimum wages, which tends to drive out the labor-intensive industries so they can be replaced by capital intensive "brain industries," Bellows notes.

Bellows also comments on Singapore's public housing — 70 percent of the people live in government-built housing — and its educational system — primary and secondary education are universally available, but not compulsory. One result of the non-compulsory policy is that adult literacy on the island is only about 75 percent, lower than that of some much poorer countries such as Jamaica or the Philippines, Bellows explains.

This article helps the reader understand where Singapore has been and where it is likely to go by the end of the 1980s and into the 1990s.

1983 World Bank Atlas, Washington, DC: The World Bank, 28 pp., $2.50. Order from 1818 H Street, NW, Washington, DC 20433.

This annual Atlas is considered the most authoritative and consistent source of information on Gross National Product and GNP Per Capita in U.S. dollars. The 1983 edition includes data for most countries and territories for 1980 and 1981, together with average annual growth rates of population and per capita GNP in real terms for the period 1970-80.

The color-coded maps allow the user to instantly assess which areas of the world have the fastest population and GNP growth rates and a two-dimensional map shows GNP per capita for each region.

General Housing Characteristics: Trust Territories of the Pacific Islands, HC80-1-A57B, 1983, Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census, 113 pp., $4.50.

General Housing Characteristics: Virgin Islands of the United States, HC80-1-A55, 1983, Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census, 54 pp., $4.50.

General Housing Characteristics: Northern Mariana Islands, HC80-1-A57A, 1983, Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census, 18 pp., $3.75.

General Housing Characteristics: American Samoa, HC80-1-A56, 1983, Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census, 52 pp., $4.50.

Order from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. For faster service, call the Government Printing Office order desk at (202) 783-3283 and use a VISA or MasterCard account.

These four reports are the standard ones issued for individual states following the 1980 U.S. Census. The reports include maps.

Each report contains detailed housing characteristics by place so that it is possible to learn, for example, that Leone Village on American Samoa had 1,652 people in 1980 when the census was taken and 252 housing units, 246 of them year-round residences. The year-round units had a median of 3.6 rooms and 52 percent of them lacked complete plumbing. The median value of the housing — as specified by owners — was $12,500 and the median monthly rent was $105. There were 174 owner-occupied units.

The reports include place-by-place information on the source of water, heat, the types of bathroom facilities, and the number of persons occupying the units.

Statistical Yearbook of China 1982, State Statistical Bureau, PRC, 1983, Hong Kong: Economic Information and Agency, 550 pp., $58. Order from Gale Research Company, Book Tower, Detroit, MI 48226.

This second edition updates tables including some more recent data from the 1982 Chinese census. In addition to presenting data on China's economic construction and social development for 1982, the official yearbook includes statistical indicators for the past 32 years, back to 1949.

One appendix shows statistical tables for Taiwan and another compares China's economic indicators with those of foreign countries.

Manpower and International Labor Migration in the Middle East and North Africa, by Ismail Serageldin, James A. Socknat, Stace Birks, Bob Li and Clive Sinclair, New York: Oxford University Press, 1983, 133 pp., $27.50.

These staff members of The World Bank project that in 1985, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, among all the countries of the Middle East and Northern Africa, will import the most migrant labor, while Egypt, Yemen, India, Pakistan, and East Asia will be the largest labor exporters.

The absolute number of migrant workers in Arabian countries is projected to increase by over 90 percent, even though Arab states are expected to provide only about 50 percent of the region's migrant worker stock. Asian countries will make up the difference, according to the projections.

This book shows the magnitude, origins, destinations, and characteristics of recent international labor flows in this region where international flows have had a great effect on the economies of both sending and receiving countries.

Included are country-by-country manpower requirements for 1985, with assumptions for both high and low economic growth. Even under the low economic growth assumption 11 countries will require over a million laborers in 1985. Egypt is projected to have the highest requirement — about 12 million more — followed by Iran, Morocco, Iraq, Algeria, Sudan and Saudi Arabia, each of which will need between 3 and 4 million more workers.

Regardless of whether there is high or low economic growth, there will still be a great need for unskilled labor in this region, with projections of a need for 8 million unskilled workers under the high economic growth assumption and 7 million unskilled workers under the low economic growth assumption. The labor requirements are expected to be largest in the agricultural and service sectors, followed by construction, trade and finance, and manufacturing.

World Handbook of Political and Social Indicators, Third Edition, (2 vols.) by Charles Lewis Taylor and David A. Jodice, 1983, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, Vol. I, about 300 pp., $25; Vol. II, about 200 pp., $22.50. Order from Yale University Press, 92A Yale Station, New Haven, CT 06520.

From studying volume I of this handbook, entitled, "Cross-National Attributes and Rates of Change," one could learn, for example, how countries rank with regard to spending for such things as military, education, and health care. It is also possible to learn energy consumption per capita, gross national product per capita, the percentage of population in cities of 100,000 people or more, and so forth.

Volume II, "Political Protest and Government Change," ranks and rates countries on such variables as deaths from political violence from 1948 to 1977 (Nigeria has the highest total, Bulgaria the lowest), political strikes, national elections, and imposition of sanctions.

For those assessing socioeconomic change, volume I is the most useful. Data are usually given for two years with a percentage change between the two. However, the data are old. For example, table 5.13 ranks countries according to the percentage of the population that lives in cities of 100,000 or more people. The first percentage given is for 1960. The second percentage varies from 1961 to 1976 and every year in between. At least half of the countries listed have had a census since 1976 and since there has been rapid urbanization in many of the countries, the list is nearly invalidated because of its age.

Even with this caution, however, the lists are useful in placing one country in relation to others for a particular variable. For example, the table for the percentage of the labor force in agriculture (first date, 1960; second 1977) clearly shows that the African countries have the highest percentages of their labor force in agriculture and that among them, Cameroon and Mozambique are moving most rapidly away from that status. •

Metro Areas *cont. from p. 5*

and dates of population estimates are not consistent. Even the list of "urgan agglomerations" issued from time to time by the United Nations includes some rather disparate areas that interfere with making satisfactory comparisons. For example, the UN's estimates for 1980 include Shanghai with 15 million population and Moscow with 8.1 million. The Shanghai figure includes several million rural dwellers living outside the city limits but administered by the city government; the Moscow estimate refers to little more than the city proper and excludes several million people who live in suburbs and satellite communities.

Of the 297 million people in the 30 areas listed here, more than 153 million live in central cities, and 143 million in suburbs, smaller central cities, or outlying industrial satellites. The central cities have just over 50 percent of the metro total — but the proportion varies greatly from country to country and metro to metro. The city of Osaka, Japan, has only 16 percent of the population of the Osaka metro area. As shown in the table, many large cities in the developed world are also "underbounded" — in other words, the metropolitan area overflows the city boundaries on a vast scale. Los Angeles and Paris are examples, but so are some cities in developing countries such as Calcutta and Manila. Only Beijing, Jakarta, Tehran, and Karachi include most of their metro population within their corporate limits.

These wide variations in the extent of corporate boundaries relative to the size of the actual metro area make comparisons of city-proper populations largely meaningless, except perhaps to those concerned primarily with municipal government. Thus, the six largest *cities* (municipal areas) are Mexico City, Seoul, Sao Paulo, Bombay, Tokyo, and Moscow, but these rank 3, 6, 5, 11, 1, and 7 in metropolitan population.

Until the 1960s practically every metro area over one million was growing, and most were growing rapidly. During the 1970s, growth virtually ground to a halt in several Western metropolises, and both London and New York have experienced declines in their metropolitan populations over the past decade. Even the large Japanese metropolises now have substantially slower growth than a decade ago.

In the developing world, however, most major cities are still expanding rapidly. In recent years Mexico City's metro population has grown by about 600,000 per year (more than 3.5 percent) and Sao Paulo and Seoul have each been growing about 500,000 per year (3.6 percent for Sao Paulo, 4 percent for Seoul). In contrast, gigantic Tokyo's annual increase is running under 300,000 or

continued

just over 1 percent. Of the 30 areas over 5 million, the fastest growth rates at the present time are those of Seoul and Bogota, Colombia (over 5 percent).

Geographical Distribution

Together the U.S. and Canada have 34 of the 247 metro areas with over one million population, home to 41 percent of their people.

Among other regions, Oceania has the next highest proportion living in metro areas — Australia's three such areas account for over 30 percent of Oceania's population. Surprisingly, the region with the third highest percentage is Latin America, with 27 percent of its population in 32 metropolitan areas over 1 million. The proportion for Europe (excludes U.S.S.R.) with 48 such metro areas, is only 23 percent. Compared with Latin America, Europe contains many large cities with populations below 1 million as well as a dense rural population.

In the U.S.S.R., about 19 percent of the population lives in 25 metro areas of over 1 million. For Asia, with 88 metro areas, the percentage is only 10, and in Africa, only 7 percent of the population lives in the 17 metro areas over 1 million.

Individual countries vary greatly from the regional average. Japan's metropolitan population, for example, at 47 percent is higher than that of the U.S. and Canada.

A rough typology of the 247 cities according to major functions produces the following:

Sixty-three can be described as national metropolises — the dominant economic center of their country. All but five of these are also the national political capital. The exceptions are New York, Istanbul, Amsterdam, Karachi, and Tel Aviv.

There are 117 regional metropolises — cities that serve as the chief economic center for an important part of their country. In most cases these cities have been the largest in their region for a century or more, although their population may be many times that of 100 years ago. Examples are Chicago, Leningrad, and Milan.

Nearly always the national and regional metropolises are major manufacturing centers in addition to their commercial and political roles. However, there are 36 industrial centers whose size is primarily the result of manufacturing or mining rather than regional economic leadership. One of the largest is the Ruhr area in West Germany.

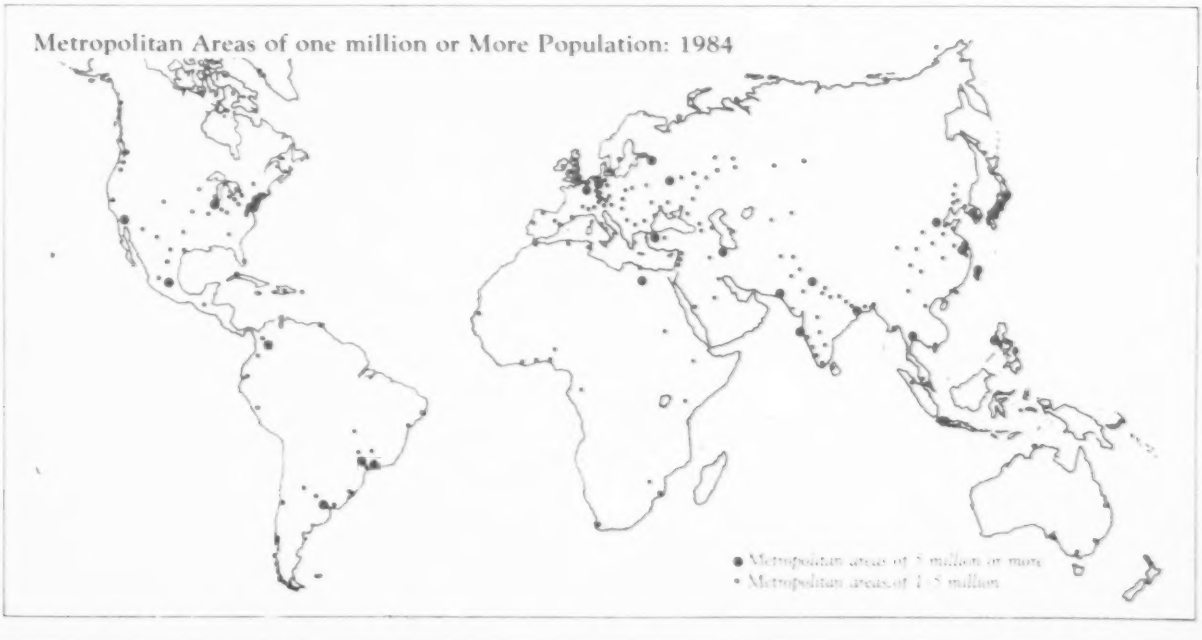
Six are classed as primarily governmental centers — Washington, Brasilia, Ankara, and (less certainly) Delhi-New Delhi, Beijing, and Rawalpindi-Islamabad. Three are city-states — Kuwait, Singapore and Hong Kong, developed largely by international trade and shipping. Twenty-four others are chiefly ocean ports (including Hamburg, Alexandria, and Santos). Most of these are also important manufacturing centers.

And finally, there are 9 places that have an unusual combination of functions. Miami, for example, is an international trading center and port as well as a resort; San Diego is a resort, naval, and manufacturing center; and Johannesburg combines gold mining with important financial and commercial functions for South Africa. Rome is a religious and tourist focus of world stature, but it is also Italy's capital and a regional economic center.

Readers may well quarrel with some of the assignments because the categories are not sharply defined. Over time, these categories can be expected to blur further, as manufacturing loses some of its significance in the developed world and as improved communication enables regional centers to share the leadership of a nation with the capital. •

—Richard L. Forstall

Richard L. Forstall is the Census Bureau's chief liaison with the Office of Management and Budget on defining U.S. metropolitan areas. He was previously Senior Research Editor at Rand McNally & Company.


Metropolitan Areas of one million or More Population: 1984
• Metropolitan areas of 5 million or more
• Metropolitan areas of 1–5 million